

CONFOUNDERS

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Studies on parental smoking and childhood respiratory disease rarely address confounding variables. Confounding variables are factors that can create a "false" association between two elements by being associated with one or both of them. For example, factor X (socioeconomic status) may be associated with both factor Y (parental smoking) and factor Z (childhood respiratory disease). When factor X is not controlled for in epidemiological studies of the possible association between factor Y and factor Z, a false association may appear between factors Y and Z. Therefore, it is vital that epidemiologists control for confounding variables when conducting studies such as those on parental smoking. The possible confounding variables associated with parental smoking and childhood respiratory disease can be grouped into four major categories: (1) household heating and cooking sources; (2) outdoor air pollution; (3) organic substances; and (4) demographic, medical and socioeconomic factors.

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Household heating and cooking sources

Children living in households with gas stoves have been reported to have a greater history of respiratory illness before the age of two and small but significantly lower levels of FEV₁ and FVC corrected for height¹ (FEV₁ and FVC are standard measurements of lung capacity and function). Similarly, exposure of children to gas cooking in the first two years of life has been associated with an increased risk of hospitalization for respiratory illness². There are reported associations of gas stove use with daily peak flow in asthmatic, normal, and allergic subjects.³

Oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) arising from the use of gas stoves for cooking were proposed to be related to a reported increase in cough, "colds going to the chest," and bronchitis in a study of 5,758 English and Scottish children aged six to eleven years⁴. A number of other confounders were controlled for in this study, including "age, social class, latitude, population density, family size, overcrowding, outdoor levels of smoke and sulphur dioxide and types of fuel used for heating." One group of researchers reported similar results for a five-year longitudinal study of 4827 boys and girls, ages five to ten years. This reported association was independent of age, sex, social class, number of cigarette smokers in the home, and latitude, and was only found in urban areas.⁵

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Use of unvented kerosene heaters, which release nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) into the indoor environment, was associated with significantly more days of acute respiratory illness in exposed children⁶. In this study, there was no difference in the number of cigarettes smoked daily in the homes of exposed versus unexposed children. NO_2 exposure was also reported to be associated with a risk of reporting lower respiratory symptoms in children under the age of seven⁷.

One study reported increased proportions of chest illnesses and hospitalizations for chest illness before age two in young children living in homes heated by wood-burning stoves. Medical histories, sociodemographic factors, or exposure to other pollutant sources did not account for the reported association⁸.

In another report, hot water heating systems were reported to have a large effect on lung function in children, when compared to the use of forced air heating and air conditioning systems⁹.

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Outdoor air pollution

Outdoor air pollutants have been identified as a confounder in several studies. In one study, acute respiratory disease incidence was reported to be positively associated with higher ambient sulfate levels¹.

A group of researchers examined the importance of indoor and outdoor environmental factors (parental smoking, gas cooking, suspended particulates and sulfur dioxide) in the respiratory health of seven- to ten-year-old Canadian children. The researchers were unable to identify any effects of parental smoking or gas cooking because the prevalence of these variables was highest in an industrial area of high particulate pollution².

One researcher has reported a strong association between respiratory illness and particulate pollution in children living in a study site which experiences relatively high levels of particulate pollution³.

A study comparing Israeli children living in a polluted industrial town versus those living in an unpolluted area reported that chronic respiratory symptoms and most pulmonary diseases were significantly more common among those children from the polluted town⁴.

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Organic substances

The relevance of home dampness in the etiology of respiratory symptoms in children is supported by current research which links dampness with the presence of molds, dust mites, fungi and other allergenic microbes.

In one study, odds ratios of 1.23 and 2.16 were reported for home dampness after adjustment for several factors, including maternal smoking, in a cohort study of 4,625 eight- to twelve-year-old children living in six United States cities¹. The authors reported odds ratios for molds of 1.27 to 2.12 after adjustment for maternal smoking and several other factors.

Another study reported higher rates of respiratory symptoms and symptoms of infection and stress among children living in damp houses. The presence of "fungal mould" was also reported to be related to higher rates of respiratory symptoms, independent of smoking in the household². In another study, the growth of fungi and molds in the home was directly related to respiratory symptoms and sensitization to common allergens in children³.

Researchers have reported that children living in damp and moldy dwellings had a greater prevalence of respiratory symptoms and headache and fever than those living in dry homes. The authors reported a dose-response relationship with increasing

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numbers of symptoms reported in dwellings with higher severity of dampness and mold. All these differences persisted after controlling for possible confounding factors such as household income, cigarette smoking, unemployment, and overcrowding⁴.

Atopic sensitization of children to house dust mites was reported to be related to home dampness⁵.

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Demographic, medical and socioeconomic factors

Low socioeconomic status has been associated with an increased incidence of respiratory complications¹. Factors related to lower socioeconomic status include: inadequate medical care, poor nutrition, poor outdoor air quality, increased parental coughing, higher gas stove usage, frequent change of address, and lower per capita living space. In a study of 1,050 European children aged eight and nine years, lifetime and current prevalence of wheeze were both significantly higher in children from low socioeconomic status².

Watkins, et al., (1986) reported high consultation rates for respiratory illness in children whose fathers were in manual occupations. This association was not explained by crowded home conditions or parental smoking³. Gardner, et al., (1984) reported significantly higher rates of lower respiratory disease in infants of low socioeconomic status⁴.

Cross-infection also plays a role in the incidence of children's respiratory disease. For instance, in a 1988 paper, Koo, et al., reported that among Japanese and Hong Kong Chinese women, there was a highly significant correlation between the frequency of maternal respiratory illness and the frequency of respiratory illness in her children⁵.

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Cross-infection may be relevant to the reports of associations between day care attendance and respiratory illness. Anderson, et al., (1988) reported that care outside the home (day care) is an important factor for acquiring lower respiratory tract illness and infectious diseases in children under two years of age⁶. Gardner, et al., (1984) also noted significantly higher rates of lower respiratory disease among day care infants⁴. Fleming, et al., (1987) reported an increased risk for upper respiratory tract infection associated with day care attendance⁷.

Familial characteristics and genetics may also act as confounders. For instance, in a 1982 publication, Lebowitz, et al., report that an observed relationship between children's pulmonary function and parental smoking disappeared when household aggregation of body mass was taken into account⁸. Another Lebowitz, et al., study (1984) also reported that there was "no remaining independent aggregation of pulmonary function measurements" after familial aggregation of body habitus was controlled for⁹. Genetic predisposition may play a role in respiratory illness and pulmonary function¹⁰; although cross-infection is also involved¹¹.

"Lifestyle" may also act as a confounder. A study in Copenhagen (Holma and Winding, 1977) examined 109 social, medical, housing, and hygiene factors on morbidity. The best predictors for health were "thriving" (satisfaction), followed by "housing standard" and "personal hygiene." The authors reported no effect

of parental cigarette smoking on the respiratory health of young children¹². A survey of 314 nonsmoking Hong Kong Chinese women and their children and 243 Japanese women and their children reported that chronic cough and sputum symptoms were at least 10 times more prevalent in Hong Kong⁵. This observation was attributed to occupational exposure to dust or fumes and household crowding among the Hong Kong mothers.

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PARENTAL SMOKING: CONFOUNDING VARIABLES

Access to medical care
Age of mother
Air pollution
Birth weight
Breast feeding
Cooking practices/type
Day care attendance
Diet
Family history of illness
Family size
Gender of child
Genetic determinants
Heating type
Home dampness
Hospital spread of illness
Household pets
Newborn illnesses
Nurture
Overcrowding
Parental education
Parental infections
Place of residence
Seasonal variation
Skin test reactivity (allergy)
Socioeconomic status

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